Multimodal single-cell sequencing of the human cortex reveals neuronal vulnerability and activated glial cell states in focal cortical dysplasia

Isabella C. Galvão[1,2], Manuela Lemoine[1,2], Lauana A. Messias[1,2], Patrícia A.O.R.A. Araújo[1,2], Jaqueline C. Geraldis[1,2], Clarissa L. Yasuda[2,3], Marina K. M. Alvim[2,3], Enrico Ghizoni[2,3], Helder Tedeschi[2,3], Fernando Cendes[2,3], Fabio Rogerio[2,4], Iscia Lopes-Cendes[1,2], and Diogo F. T. Veiga[1,2,*]

[1]Department of Translational Medicine, School of Medical Sciences, University of Campinas, Campinas (UNICAMP), Brazil

[2]The Brazilian Institute of Neuroscience and Neurotechnology (BRAINN), Campinas, Brazil

[3]Department of Neurology, School of Medical Sciences, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, SP, Brazil

[4]Department of Pathology, School of Medical Sciences, University of Campinas (UNICAMP), Campinas, Brazil

*Corresponding author: dfveiga@unicamp.br

ABSTRACT

The role of the diverse brain cell types in focal cortical dysplasia (FCD) development and epileptogenicity is not fully understood. Here, we performed multi-omics single-cell sequencing to characterize the chromatin accessibility and transcriptomes of cortical lesions and non-lesion areas from individuals with FCD IIa and IIb, the most prevalent presentations of this neurodevelopmental disorder. Our integrative analyses of the multimodal cell atlas, encompassing 61,525 nuclei with paired open chromatin and gene expression, uncovered a selective loss of upper-layer excitatory neurons and identified a lesion-specific population expressing NEFM, a neurofilament associated with dysmorphic neurons. In glial compartments, we observed a shift towards immature astrocytic populations exhibiting features of reactive astrocytes and balloon cells. Moreover, we identified activated microglial cell states emerging in FCD IIb, indicating that neuroinflammation contributes to FCD pathogenesis. This multimodal cell atlas is a valuable resource for exploring the cellular landscape and informing novel therapeutic approaches for cortical malformations.

Keywords: focal cortical dysplasia; cortical malformations; single-cell sequencing; multi-omics; gene expression; chromatin accessibility; microglia; astrocyte differentiation

INTRODUCTION

45   Focal Cortical Dysplasia (FCD) is a malformation of the cerebral cortex and a major cause of

drug-refractory epilepsy in children. The treatment of this neurological condition with current

anti-seizure medications is often ineffective, potentially demanding surgical removal of

48   affected brain tissue. FCD is classified based on neuroimaging, histopathology, and genetic

characteristics[1,2]. FCD type II, the most common presentation, is characterized by

cytoarchitectural cortical abnormalities including loss of cortical lamination, blurring of the

51   gray-white matter junction, and abnormal cellular development[2]. FCD II cortical lesions can

be further classified based on cytological features: FCD IIa is characterized by the presence of

dysmorphic neurons, while FCD IIb presents with both dysmorphic neurons and balloon cells.

54   Dysmorphic neurons are abnormal cells featuring enlarged soma and nuclei[1,2], along with

expression of neurofilament markers typical of immature neurons in the developing cortex. On

the other hand, balloon cells are characterized by large cell bodies with vitreous, opalescent,

57   and eosinophilic cytoplasm[1,2]. These cells express markers commonly associated with

neuroglial progenitors, including nestin and vimentin, indicating their immature nature[3]. High

expression of other progenitor cell markers such as c-Myc, SOX2, and Oct-4 were also

60   observed throughout FCD II lesions[4,5].

FCD II is also characterized by activation of the mammalian target of rapamycin

complex 1 (mTORC1) signaling pathway, which is implicated in cell growth, increased

63   synaptic transmission and plasticity, as well as regulation of immune system responses[6–8].

Hyperactivation of mTOR signaling, which operates through the mTORC1 and mTORC2

complexes, is particularly observed in abnormal cells such as dysmorphic neurons and balloon

66   cells[9]. Increased phosphorylation of S6K1 and S6 proteins, which are mTORC1 substrates, can

be used as a biomarker to distinguish FCD type II lesions[4]. Genetic alterations such as somatic

gain-of-function mutations in mTOR activating genes and germline loss-of-function mutations

of mTOR inhibitors are also found in FCD II[9–11].

The cellular and epileptogenic mechanisms of FCD are not yet fully understood. Dysmorphic neurons appear to play a pivotal role in generating epileptic discharges[11], while balloon cells are considered electrically quiescent and may even have an anti-seizure effect[3]. A recent study showed that dysmorphic neurons derive from glutamatergic neurons while balloon cells have astrocytic lineage[12]. We and other groups have shown that FCD IIb lesions are also characterized by increased microglia and astrocyte reactivity when compared to FCD IIa or healthy controls[13–15]. However, little is known regarding the cellular landscape of FCD lesions and the role of the diverse cortical cell types in the disease.

Single-cell assays enable the capturing of individual cells or nuclei for molecular profiling of diverse biological modalities, including gene expression and open chromatin levels. Single-nucleus RNA sequencing enables measuring gene expression, while transposase-accessible chromatin (ATAC) sequencing measures chromatin accessibility, which indicates the physical access to DNA for transcription. These assays have been applied to resolve the cellular diversity of the human brain in healthy and disease contexts[16–18] and to discover novel cell states associated with neurological conditions[19–21]. In addition, recently introduced multimodal single-cell approaches can obtain multiple measurements from the same cells simultaneously, and integration of these layers might yield even richer information regarding the cellular mechanisms involved in diseases[22,23].

In this study, we applied multi-omics single-cell sequencing to characterize the chromatin accessibility and gene expression profiles in FCD type II, generating a comprehensive multimodal atlas from individuals diagnosed with the condition. This resource was explored to unravel molecular processes and cell states underlying FCD pathogenesis.

RESULTS

Assembling a multimodal cellular atlas of FCD type II

We performed multi-omics single-cell sequencing of cortical brain tissue from FCD IIa (n=3) and IIb (n=6) lesions, as well as from non-lesion tissues from FCD donors selected as controls (n=2; Figure 1A). Specimens were collected during epilepsy surgery to treat drug-refractory FCD. Internal controls correspond to histologically normal cortical tissues where neither abnormal cells (dysmorphic neurons and balloon cells) nor architectural changes were observed. Dissociated nuclei were profiled using the 10X Genomics Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression assay for simultaneous measurement of chromatin accessibility and gene expression in individual nuclei. Quality control was performed to remove low-quality nuclei and to filter out potential doublets, and Harmony[24] was applied to ATAC and RNA datasets to integrate samples from different sequencing batches (Figure 1B). The Weighted Nearest Neighbor (WNN) approach[25] from Seurat was used to create an integrated multimodal (ATAC + RNA) visualization (Figure 1B). The resulting multimodal FCD atlas comprised 61,525 nuclei with paired chromatin and gene expression measurements. Clustering analysis in the multimodal dataset identified a total of 40 nuclei clusters (Figure S1A), which were annotated using Azimuth[25] followed by manual validation using canonical marker genes to define consensus cell types. Azimuth was able to assign labels with high confidence to the majority of clusters (Figure S1B), and none of the clusters were exclusive to a unique sample (Figure S1C). Consensus cell type annotation was performed using a broad classification (Figure 1C) and higher-resolution taxonomy including neuronal subtypes and cortical layers (Figure 1D).

Overall, our annotation identified the various cell types expected in the human cortex such as excitatory and inhibitory neurons, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, oligodendrocytes progenitor cells (OPC), microglia, endothelial cells, and vascular and leptomeningeal cells (VLMC, Figure 1C). We also identified the various subtypes of excitatory neurons (EN, Figure

1D) including upper layers EN L2/3 (termed EN Upper), and deep layer subtypes EN L5, EN

L5/6, EN L6 (EN Deep), while inhibitory neurons (IN) were further classified into Vip, Sst,

120   Pvalb, Lamp5 and Sncg/Lamp5 subtypes (Figure 1D). Based on the histological assessment,

most of the sequenced nuclei derived from IIb lesions, followed by internal controls and IIa

lesions (Figure 1E). Gene expression and open chromatin accessibility of marker genes were

123   inspected to confirm cell type identity (Figures 1F-G). For instance, *AQP4* (astrocytes),

SLC17A7 (EN), *GAD2* (IN), *PLP1* (oligodendrocytes), *CD86* (microglia), and *GPR17* (OPC)

were marker genes with concordant expression and chromatin accessibility in their

126   corresponding cell types.

Using signature enrichment analysis, mTORC1 signaling was found to be elevated in

dysplastic tissue across all cell types except VLMC and endothelia (Figure S2A), and cells with

129   the highest mTORC1 activation were identified in FCD IIb (Figure S2B). Thus, the single-cell

multimodal atlas uncovered the heterogenous composition of FCD type II lesions and

recapitulated key aspects of their pathological state.

Unraveling cellular changes in FCD lesions

Next, we determined cell type abundance changes between FCD and control samples with

135   Speckle[26], using an approach that accounts for variability in cellular frequencies among

patients. As a result, we found several alterations between lesions and controls, including

neuronal loss in FCD affecting the EN L2/3 subtype, and increased frequency of

138   oligodendrocytes in both FCD IIa and IIb (Figure 1H). In addition, we found an expansion of

the microglia population specifically in IIb donors.

We also leveraged the hierarchical nature of the Azimuth annotation, which classifies

141   glutamatergic and GABAergic neurons into 116 subclasses based on the expression of makers,

to find out how these neuronal subclasses are affected in the disease. The Exc L2

LINC00507/GLRA3, the most common EN subclass in the cortex in our samples, was also the most affected glutamatergic neuron displaying the highest number of transcriptional changes and abundance reduction in lesions (Figure S3A,B). Among IN, FCD IIa displayed an increased frequency of Inh L1-5 Vip/*SMOC1*, a subclass of vasoactive intestinal peptide-expressing (Vip) interneurons, and the Parvalbumin-expressing (Pvalb) interneurons Inh L3 Pvalb/*SAMD13* (Figure S3C); yet, these were not the subclasses with most transcriptional changes (Figure S3D). On the other hand, somatostatin-expressing (Sst) subclasses Inh L1 Sst/*DEFB108B* and Inh L1-2 Sst/*CCNJL* were decreased only in FCD IIb when compared to controls (Figure S3C). Altogether, this data shows that cellular abundance changes affect both neuronal and non-neuronal populations in FCD pathogenesis.

Identification of a disease-specific cluster containing dysmorphic neurons

During annotation, we found a heterogeneous cluster containing both excitatory neurons and oligodendrocytes that we initially termed Unclassified since Azimuth could not confidently assign a cell type (Figure 1C). This cluster was highly disease-specific as it contained 1,308 cells, being that 1,285 cells (98%) originating from FCD (Figure 2A). Despite clustering next to oligodendrocytes after Harmony integration, 54% of nuclei were classified as EN and 29% as oligodendrocytes. To further characterize this cell population, we identified marker genes using Seurat´s FindMarkers and performed KEGG pathway enrichment analysis on the set of marker genes using g:Profiler[27]. Notably, all top enriched pathways were related to neurodegenerative diseases including Parkinson's, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, and Alzheimer's (Figure 2B). Also, the majority of DS cluster markers were associated with neuronal processes including oxidative phosphorylation, Ca^{2+} transport, neuron development, and neurofilament subunits (Figure 2C).

We found two neurofilament subunits *NEFL* and *NEFM* overexpressed in the DS

168   cluster (Figure 2C), and that *NEFM* is exclusively expressed in the DS cluster and not detected

in any other cell type in either lesions or non-lesion tissues (Figure 2D). The chromatin

accessibility in the *NEFM* and *NEFL* loci corroborates with their active gene expression in the

171   DS cluster (Figure 2E). In particular, SMI32 or SMI-311 antibodies against neurofilaments are

often used to identify dysmorphic neurons in dysplastic tissue during histopathological

diagnosis of FCD[2,11].

174   Next, we used a signature enrichment analysis to further characterize the DS cluster.

We used a 30-gene signature from Baldassari et al[28], which obtained a purified DN population

by isolating these cells in FCD lesions using laser capture microdissection followed by single-

177   cell sequencing. We applied the AddModuleScore function from Seurat to score the DN

signature and found that nuclei with the highest expression of this signature were overlapping

the DS cluster (Figure 1F). Finally, to find out whether the DS cluster could be detected in

180   healthy individuals, we integrated our FCD dataset with single-cell RNA-seq from cortical

samples obtained from age-matched autopsy controls[17] using Harmony and carried out cell

annotation. As a result, we confirmed that the DS cluster was not present in the normal cortex

183   (Figure 1G). Taken together, these data demonstrate that this cell population is uniquely present

in FCD lesions and comprises dysmorphic neurons expressing genes associated with

neurodegenerative conditions.

Pathological microglia cell states in FCD

To further characterize microglia states in FCD, we performed subclustering and re-annotation

189   of the broad microglial compartment. Subclustering and marker detection with Seurat

uncovered 7 subpopulations with clearly distinct gene signatures (Figure S4; full list of

subcluster markers provided in Supplemental Table 2). Diverse microglia signatures identified

192 by single-cell sequencing have been previously reported in neurological diseases[20,21,29]. We

used signatures of microglia subsets derived from healthy and epileptic temporal cortex[21] to

annotate subclusters in FCD. Using this approach, we identified three distinct microglia states

195 in FCD lesions (Figure 3A): a homeostatic subset (the largest population corresponding to

subcluster 0); a subset expressing high levels of *CD74* (subcluster 1, *CD74*$^{+}$), and a subset

expressing high levels of *CD83* (subclusters 2 and 5, *CD83*$^+$). We also identified small

198 subclusters of lymphocyte/T cells, B cells, and perivascular macrophages that were annotated

using classical lymphocyte markers (Figure 3A). As shown in Figure 3B, *CD74*$^+$ microglia

expressed marker genes related to antigen processing and presentation/MHC class II genes

201 (*HLA-DRA*, *HLA-DPA1*, *HLA-DPB1*, *HLA-DRB1*, *HLA-DQA1*), adaptive immune system

response and microglial cell activation (*CD74*, *SC1N*, *C1QA*, *C1QB*, *C1QC*), and interferon

signaling (*IFNGR1*, *JAK2*, *B2M*). On the other hand, *CD83*$^+$ microglia expressed high levels

204 of pro-inflammatory cytokines including *IL1B*, *CCL2*, *CCL3*, *CCL4*, and *TNFSF18*.

Interestingly, *CD83* and *CD74* expression are largely non-overlapping, indicating that these

surface markers can be effectively used to distinguish microglia states in FCD (Figure 3C).

207 Of note, homeostatic microglia and activated states are expanded only in FCD IIb

tissues (Figure 3D). Compared to controls, FCD IIb had a higher frequency of *CD74*$^+$ and

homeostatic subclusters. Compared to FCD IIa, the expansion included *CD74*$^+$ and *CD83*$^+$

210 subpopulations as well as lymphoid/T cells (Figure 3D). Together, these data highlight the

emergence of activated microglial states specifically within the FCD IIb lesion environment.

213 **Open chromatin and gene expression microglia activation in FCD type IIb**

Next, we found differentially expressed genes in FCD IIb microglia by performing a Wilcox

test after SCT transformation[30] with correction for sequencing batch, mitochondrial gene

216 percentage, and brain region. The analysis identified 133 upregulated genes in FCD IIb

compared to controls (Figure 3E). GO terms associated with upregulated genes included antigen processing and presentation, MHC class II protein complex, and positive regulation of

219   cell activation (Figure 3F), in line with the expansion of *CD74*$^+$ microglia in FCD IIb.

We then applied chromVAR[31] to measure motif activity based on the open chromatin profiles in individual nuclei and determined the set of motifs with differential activity between

222   FCD IIb and controls. Top upregulated motifs in FCD IIb microglia included ELF1, IRF8, and STAT1/STAT2 (Figure 3G), which are regulators related to microglia activation. Cells with the highest motif activity in FCD IIb overlapped the *CD74*$^+$ microglia (Figure 3H), denoting

225   that these microglia undergo concerted transcriptional and epigenetic changes in response to the disease. Therefore, gene expression and motif activity in open chromatin regions indicate the microglia activation in FCD IIb is mediated by the *CD74*$^+$ subpopulation.

Immature astrocyte cell states and balloon cells in FCD

We explored whether the astrocytic population is affected in FCD by employing an

231   unsupervised trajectory analysis. Astrocytes were clustered and temporally ordered on a trajectory as a function of pseudotime using Monocle3, and gene expression changes were visualized over UMAPs (Figure 4A). As a result, the trajectory built by Monocle3 organized

234   astrocytes according to their differentiation status, with immature and mature astrocytes on opposite ends of the trajectory (Figure 4B). The root of the trajectory was chosen based on the expression of immature (*CD44*, *TNC*, *VCAN*, and *GFAP*) and mature (*SLC1A2*, *SLC1A3*, and

237   *GPC5*) astrocyte markers. Remarkably, the quantification of FCD and control cells along the trajectory revealed an expansion of immature astrocytes accompanied by a decrease of mature astrocytes in FCD tissues (Figure 4C). On the other hand, fully mature astrocytes were highly

240   represented in controls (Figure 4C). We also analyzed the expression of gene signatures corresponding to balloon cells, which have been shown to originate from the astrocytic

lineage[28] as well as reactive astrocytes[19], using the AUCell method[32] and the AddModuleScore

243   function from Seurat. Scores for both balloon cells and reactive astrocytes signatures were

more elevated in astrocytes from FCD lesions and overlapped with immature states at the

beginning of the trajectory (Figure 4D). Of note, immature astrocytes identified as balloon cells

246   were mostly exclusive to FCD IIb cases, while reactive astrocytes were present in both FCD

subtypes (Figure 4D, bottom). Genes associated with balloon cells and reactive astrocytes

including *CHI3L1*, *HSPB1*, *SERPINA3*, *GFAP*, and *VIM* were up-regulated in FCD IIb

249   astrocytes compared to FCD IIa or internal controls (Figure 4E). Taken together, these analyses

showed that immature astrocyte cell states, including balloon cells and reactive astrocytes, are

expanded in the disease, indicating that normal astrocyte differentiation is impaired in FCD.

Chromatin changes and cell-type specific gene regulation in FCD

Next, we explored the multimodal atlas to find open chromatin regions associated with gene

255   regulation in FCD. First, we found the set of differentially accessible chromatin regions

(DACRs), which are regions (peaks) with gain or loss of chromatin accessibility, by comparing

chromatin profiles across cell types in FCD against controls. Overall, FCD IIa had a higher

258   number of DACRs, especially in upper and deep EN (Figure 5A). Most of the DACRs in FCD

IIa displayed a gain of accessibility in the lesion (opening peaks), while DACRs in FCD IIb

were characterized by a loss of chromatin accessibility (Figure 5A). Further analysis using

261   Encode annotation found that most DACRs were located within enhancer regions, with 34%

overlapping proximal enhancers near a transcriptional start site and 44% overlapping distal

enhancers (Figure 5B).

264   We then sought to understand whether these DACRs were driving gene regulation. To

achieve this, we implemented a machine-learning approach based on random forests to learn

regulatory links using the paired single-cell chromatin and gene expression readouts in the

267   dataset (see Methods). The method was applied to find chromatin regions that were most likely

        to predict gene expression in each cell type, thus revealing the role of DACRs in controlling

        gene expression. For instance, we identified regulatory links for *FKBP* prolyl isomerase 5

270   (*FKBP5*), a gene within the mTORC1 pathway that exhibited upregulation in FCD astrocytes

        (Figure 5C). The regulatory connections involved DACRs with gain of chromatin accessibility

        in FCD (regions highlighted in Figure 5C), suggesting that the increased *FKBP5* expression is

273   accompanied by chromatin remodeling. These opening chromatin peaks are also putative

        FKBP5 cis-regulatory elements since they are located in regions with enhancer activity

        according to Encode. Similarly, we also found opening chromatin peaks located in enhancers

276   that were linked to *C1QA* and *C1QB*, which were genes involved in microglia cell activation

        increased in FCD IIb (Figure S5). Taken together, these analyses demonstrated that chromatin

        changes affecting enhancer regions are likely driving cell type-specific gene regulation in FCD.

DISCUSSION

285   In this work, we constructed a multimodal cellular atlas of FCD, a cortical malformation prevalent in children and adults and a leading cause of drug-resistant focal epilepsy. This multi-omics dataset contains paired chromatin accessibility and gene expression of FCD II lesions

288   and adjacent normal tissue, and will be a valuable resource for exploring the molecular and cellular mechanisms of FCD pathogenesis. Thus, we anticipate that this multimodal cell atlas will be important in future studies integrating chromatin and transcriptomic data, including

291   unraveling the impact of non-coding variants in open chromatin regions in gene expression or identifying chromatin enhancers driving gene dysregulation.

        The majority of single-cell studies so far have focused on a single modality such as

294   RNA or ATAC sequencing, and a few studies have analyzed the human brain from a multi-omics perspective[16,33]. Paired single-cell studies, which generate multiple readouts from the same cell, are still in their infancy due to technical limitations and cost. Yet, these paired

297   multimodal single-cell experiments generate unique datasets that enable exploration of cell-type specific gene regulation by learning the relationship between chromatin accessibility and transcription in the same cell[34].

300   Herein, we leveraged the multimodal FCD atlas to reveal the concerted epigenetic and transcriptional alterations affecting both neuronal and glial populations in response to the disease. Using complementary single-cell methods to explore the FCD multimodal cell atlas in

303   detail, we discovered pathological cell states associated with FCD development and characterized the involvement of novel glial and neuronal subpopulations in response to FCD.

        First, our data showed that both glutamatergic and GABAergic neurons undergo

306   changes in cellular abundance and transcriptional profiles during FCD development, yet neuronal loss affects mostly the EN L2/3 subtype. Interestingly, EN in upper cortical layers

were also found to be reduced in cortical samples of patients with multiple sclerosis[35] and

309   temporal lobe epilepsy[36], highlighting their vulnerability in other neurological conditions.

Second, we characterized a neuronal cell population specific to FCD lesions expressing a dysmorphic neuron-signature and neurofilament genes. This neuronal population was notably

312   absent in non-lesion controls and the healthy cortex from autopsy cases. Also, the expression of *NEFM*, encoding the medium polypeptide subunit of the neurofilament protein, was found to be restricted to this subpopulation. Neurofilaments detected in the blood have emerged as

315   reliable diagnostic biomarkers in several neurological diseases[37]. The remarkable specificity of *NEFM* expression in dysplastic cells suggests its potential as a blood biomarker for FCD, prompting the need for additional research to explore its utility as a molecular diagnostic tool

318   in the disease.

Third, we described the expansion of microglia and the emergence of pathological cell states specifically in FCD IIb lesions. We identified two FCD-associated microglial

321   subpopulations with distinct signatures: a *CD74*+ subset overexpressing antigen presentation molecules (MHC class-II components), and a *CD83*+ subset with increased expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Previous scRNA-seq studies have identified microglial populations in

324   neurological conditions[20,21,29]. For instance, using scRNA-seq followed by in situ immunohistochemistry, Olah et al[21] described the existence of nine microglial subpopulations in the human cortex (prefrontal cortex of autopsy samples and temporal cortex of epilepsy),

327   including the *CD83*+ and *CD74*+ subsets. Mathys et al[38] also identified a microglia subset with increased expression of *CD74* and MHCII-related genes in patients with Alzheimer's disease. A *CD74* subset was also described in the pathology of multiple sclerosis[39], and *CD74* has been

330   proposed as a marker for reactive microglia due to its increased expression levels in disease[40]. Although there is no consensus in the field on how to annotate microglia cell states, we used the terminology from Olah et al since the *CD83* and *CD74* molecules were identified

333   as markers of microglia subclusters in FCD. Here, we also found higher lymphoid/T-cells infiltration is specific to FCD IIb, in agreement with previous findings[14].

       There is also strong evidence of dysregulated neuroinflammation mediated by

336   microglia in FCD and epilepsy. Zimmer et al[14] showed that FCD IIb elicits a stronger inflammatory response characterized by increased expression of the *HLA-II* and *CCL2* in microglia near balloon cells. Kumar et al[41] described immune cell infiltration and increased

339   expression of pro-inflammatory genes (e.g. *IL1B*, *CCL4*, *CCL2*) in microglia from epilepsy samples. Therefore, we postulate that the *CD74*^{+} and *CD83*^{+} microglia subsets identified herein are the glial populations mediating immune system activation and neuroinflammation in FCD

342   IIb.

       Finally, we showed that astrocyte differentiation is impaired in FCD, and immature astrocytic cell states are expanded in lesions. This shift from mature to immature astrocytes

345   can be explained in part by the appearance of reactive astrocytes and balloon cells, which are abnormal cell populations typically found in the lesion microenvironment, that we characterized as immature astrocytic states. Specifically, pseudotime trajectory analysis

348   revealed that reactive astrocytes resemble immature-like cells that emerge in FCD lesions, supporting the view that astrogliosis induces a partial reversion of astrocyte maturation[42]. Similarly, we showed that balloon cells also represent immature astrocytic cell states. Balloon

351   cells were identified exclusively in FCD IIb, consistent with the histological characterization of the clinical samples. Moving forward, it will be important to understand the contribution of these immature astrocytes to FCD. Mature astrocytes are known to maintain neuronal

354   homeostasis and prevent excessive neuronal activity through neurotransmitter reuptake[42], and their dysregulation can lead to epileptogenesis[43]. Thus, these immature astrocytic populations might add to the intrinsic epileptogenicity in FCD.

METHODS

Clinical samples and neuropathological diagnosis

Fresh brain samples were collected from patients who underwent surgery for intractable seizures after clinical diagnosis of FCD at Hospital de Clínicas, University of Campinas. Surgical specimens were (i) formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) or (ii) snap-frozen in

liquid nitrogen and stored at −80°C. FFPE samples were submitted to diagnostic routine in serial 4 μm-sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and submitted to immunohistochemical reactions. For the latter protocol, the sections were exposed to

antibodies against NeuN (neuronal marker; 1:1,000, clone A60, Merck Millipore, cat#MAB377, Temecula, CA, USA), MAP2 (neuronal marker; 1:1,000, clone M13, Thermo Fisher, cat#13-1500, Waltham, MA, USA), SMI 32 (neuronal marker; 1:2,500, clone SMI 32,

Biolegend, cat#SMI-32R, San Diego, CA, USA), GFAP (astrocytic marker, 1:100, clone 6F2, Dako/Agilent, cat#M0761, Santa Clara, CA, USA), vimentin (1:100, clone V9, e-Bioscience/Thermo Fisher, cat#14-9897-82, Waltham, MA, USA), CD34 (1:50, clone QBEnd-

10, Dako, cat#M7165, Glostrup, Denmark) and CNPase (myeloarchitecture marker; 1:500, clone 11-5 B, Millipore, cat#MAB326, Darmstadt, Germany), for 18 h at 4°C. Then, a detection solution containing the secondary antibody and peroxidase (AdvanceTMHRP®,

Dako, cat#K4068, Glostrup, Denmark; or EnvisionTM Flex+, Dako, cat#K8002, Glostrup, Denmark) was added for 30 min at 37°C. 3,3-diaminobenzidine (DAB) was used as a chromogenic substrate and counterstaining was performed with hematoxylin. Negative

controls (without primary antibody) were run concurrently with all immunohistochemical reactions.

        Samples were classified as FCD IIa or IIb according to the guidelines of the

381   International League Against Epilepsy (ILAE)[2]. Specifically, specimens exhibiting cortical dyslamination, hypertrophic and dysmorphic neurons [disoriented neurons with anomalous

cytoplasmic distribution of Nissl substance and accumulation of non-phosphorylated neurofilament (SMI 32-positive)] without or with balloon cells (large cells with opaque eosinophilic cytoplasm, vesicular nucleus and immunopositivity for vimentin) were classified as FCD ILAE type IIa or IIb, respectively. Internal controls were derived from histologically normal tissue where neither abnormal cells nor architectural changes were observed. Detailed patient information is provided in the Supplemental Table 1. All procedures were approved by the University of Campinas's Research Ethics Board, and written informed consent was obtained from all patients before surgery.

Nuclei isolation and multiome library construction

The nuclei extraction protocol for human brain tissue was adapted from Jessa et al[44]. Briefly, frozen tissue was dounce homogenized and incubated for 2 minutes in lysis buffer containing 0.1% NP-40. Then, suspension was filtered through a 30 μm cell strainer (MACS), and washed in buffer containing 10% BSA to remove debris, followed by a centrifugation at 500g and 4°C for 5 minutes. Next, the suspension was carefully layered on double 29% and 50% iodixanol (Sigma) cushion layers, and centrifuged at 10,000g and 4°C for 30 minutes for additional removal of debris and cell aggregates. Retrieved nuclei were resuspended and counted. Nuclei were stained with Trypan blue and counted using a hemocytometer. Nuclei integrity was evaluated under a microscope using 40X or 60X magnifications, and nuclei were considered viable if they were roundish and with an intact membrane. Next, we proceeded to the steps of the library construction, including open chromatin transposition and droplet (GEM) formation using a Chromium Controller equipment (10X Genomics). Libraries were prepared using the Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression kit (10X Genomics) following the manufacturer's protocol CG000338 revision E. The quality of purified ATAC and RNA libraries was assessed using a TapeStation equipment (Agilent Technologies).

Sequencing and raw data processing

Multiome libraries were sequenced on either Illumina HiSeqX Ten or Illumina NovaSeq 6000

411   instruments according to the sequencing depth and the read length recommended in the

Multiome kit protocol (CG000338). Demultiplexing, genome alignment, gene quantification,

and peak accessibility in single nuclei were performed with the Cell Ranger ARC pipeline[45].

414   Specifically, fastq files were generated using cellranger mkfastq, then processed using the

cellranger-arc count v.2.0.2 and the human genome GRCh38 to generate the count matrices for

the RNA and ATAC modalities. Next, we performed data processing, normalization, and batch

417   integration on both assays independently, using Seurat v.5.0.1[46] and Signac v.1.12.0[47] in the R

environment v.4.1.2.

420   **scRNA-seq analysis**

Samples were preprocessed in Seurat to remove low-quality nuclei using the following criteria:

$400 <$ nFeatures $< 7,000$, $500 <$ UMI counts $< 50,000$, and percentage of mitochondrial reads

423   (percent.mt) < 15. Identification of doublets was performed per sample using scDblFinder

v.1.8.0[48]. Next, standard Seurat data processing and normalization steps were performed:

NormalizeData, FindVariableFeatures, ScaleData, RunPCA, RunUMAP, FindNeighbors, and

426   FindClusters. For each sample, the filtered counts matrix was log-normalized with regression

of sequencing mitochondrial gene percentages. The RunUMAP function was used with the first

40 PCs identified in the elbow plot to perform dimensional reduction. Clustering was

429   performed using FindNeighbors and FindClusters functions using the smart local moving

(SLM) algorithm, with a resolution of 1.2.

To correct batch effect among samples, we used Harmony v.1.2[24] to integrate sample-level

432   PCA projections using automatic hyperparameter optimization and default parameters.

Harmony implements an algorithm that projects cells into a common space where they cluster by cell type rather than other sample attributes such as sequencing batch.

435 Finally, we used SCTransform to create a normalized expression matrix containing all samples, and with regression of sequencing batch, brain region, and mitochondrial gene percentages. DEGs between FCD and controls were calculated using MAST or the Wilcox test implemented

438 in Seurat as indicated. For MAST, DEGs were selected using an adjusted P value of less than 0.05. The Wilcox test was applied using the SCT normalized data, using a log2 fold-change threshold of 0.25 and an adjusted P value of less than 0.05.

scATAC-seq analysis

Samples were preprocessed in Signac to remove low-quality nuclei using the following criteria:

444 $1,000 <$ ATAC fragments $< \alpha$(ATAC fragments), $400 <$ ATAC fragments in peaks $< \alpha$ (ATAC fragments in peaks), percent.mt < 15, nucleosome signal < 2, TSS enrichment < 2. Upper limits (α) of ATAC fragments per sample were computed as mean plus 2 standard deviations. Peaks

447 within each sample were identified using MACS2[49]. Standard processing and normalization steps were performed as follows: RunTFIDF, FindTopFeatures, RunSVD, and FindClusters. For each sample, the peak counts matrix was normalized using the RunTFIDF function, to

450 correct for differences in nuclei sequencing depth. Dimensional reduction was performed with latent semantic indexing (LSI) using the RunSVD function. UMAP projection was performed utilizing LSI components 2-30, as the first LSI component was confirmed to be a technical

453 variation. Before sample integration, we created a common peak set across samples using MACS2 and quantified peaks in each sample using the FeatureMatrix function. Peaks in non-standard chromosomes and blacklisted regions were removed from downstream analyses. We

456 then re-computed RunTFIDF, FindTopFeatures, and RunSVD on the merged object and applied Harmony to integrate sample-level low-dimensional cell embeddings (LSI components

2-30) using the same parameters defined in the RNA modality. Differentially accessible

459   chromatin regions (DACRs) between FCD tissues and controls were calculated using

FindMarkers with the LR test, with a min.pct of 0.05, an adjusted P value less than 0.05, and

included the number of ATAC fragments as a latent variable.

Multimodal data integration

To integrate gene expression data with chromatin accessibility data, we performed Weighted

465   Nearest Neighbor (WNN) analysis[25], an unsupervised approach that learns the relative utility

of each modality and builds a joint graph representing a weighted combination of RNA and

ATAC modalities. WNN was performed using the FindMultiModalNeighbors function with

468   20 neighbors (k.nn), based on the UMAP reductions obtained after Harmony integration. The

WNN graph was used for creating a joint UMAP visualization and clustering based on the

WNN graph was performed with the FindClusters function using the smart local moving

471   (SLM) algorithm. WNN clusters with fewer than 50 nuclei, a high percentage of doublets, or

enriched in mitochondrial markers were removed from downstream analyses.

474   **Cluster annotation**

We used the Azimuth R package[25] to perform cell type annotation in the FCD dataset, using as

a reference the Allen atlas of the human cortex[50]. Azimuth performed label-transferring by

477   assigning to each cell in the FCD dataset the most similar cell type in the reference based on

gene expression similarity. The assigned cell type chosen for each cluster was defined as the

cell type with the highest mean frequency within the cluster. The Azimuth annotation was

480   manually verified using the marker genes shown in Figure 1C. Cluster and subcluster markers

were calculated using the function FindAllMarkers based on the SCT normalized data, with

the Wilcox test using a log2 fold-change threshold of 0.25 and an adjusted P value of less than

483   0.05.

Differential cellular abundance

486   We used the function propeller of the Speckle R package[26] to detect changes in cellular

composition between FCD tissues and controls. The propeller function calculated cell type

proportions in biological replicates, and fitted a linear model for each cell type with the tissue

489   condition as a covariate.

Integration with scRNA-seq from normal cortex

492   We obtained normal cortex scRNA-seq data from three autopsy donors with no history of

neurological disease from Silleti et al[17]. To reduce computational costs, we randomly sampled

10,000 neuronal and 10,000 non-neuronal cortical nuclei from these donors, and processed this

495   data along with our FCD dataset following the procedures described in the "scRNA-seq

analysis" section. We used Harmony v.1.2 to integrate all samples with automatic

hyperparameter optimization and default parameters. Clustering was performed with

498   FindNeighbors and FindClusters functions using the smart local moving (SLM) algorithm and

a resolution of 2.0.

501   **Gene signature analysis**

We used the AddModuleScore function from Seurat and the AUCell[32] R package to calculate

gene set enrichment at the nuclei level. The AddModuleScore function from Seurat was

504   calculated based on the SCT-normalized RNA data. AUCell computes the gene set enrichment

scores based on ranked gene lists (highest to lowest gene expression) in each cell. AUCell

scores were computed using the calcAUC function using the top 5% of genes. The obtained

507   threshold was used to classify cells with active status for the given signature.

Motif enrichment analysis

510   We performed motif analysis using chromVAR v. 3.3.2[31] and Signac. Motif activity at the

nuclei level was calculated using the RunChromVAR function in Signac after matching the set

of background peaks. Differential motif activity was computed using FindAllMarkers and

513   FindMarkers (pairwise comparisons) using the LR test, with a min.pct of 0.05, an adjusted P

value less than 0.05, and included the number of ATAC fragments as a latent variable. We also

filtered context-relevant motifs using the regulator expression levels. The regulator associated

516   with the motif needed to be expressed in at least 10% of the cells in the cluster.

Trajectory Inference Analysis

519   Pseudotime trajectory analysis was conducted using Monocle v3[51,52]. Briefly, RNA counts

were preprocessed using the preprocess_cds function with the PCA method. To correct batch

effects, we used the align_cds function[53] with the sample as an alignment group and a residual

522   formula including the sequencing batch, brain region, and mitochondrial genes percentage as

covariates. Nuclei were then projected onto the UMAP space[54] and divided into clusters and

partitions with the cluster_cells function[55]. Subsequently, an unsupervised trajectory was

525   identified using the SimplePPT (Probabilistic Pseudotime Trajectory) algorithm implemented

in the learn_graph function[56], with the root set according to the expression of immature cellular

markers. Pseudotime values were automatically assigned to individual cells based on their

528   distance along the trajectory relative to the root node. Genes with differential expression along

the trajectory were calculated using the graph_test function, with adjusted P-value less than

0.05 and arranged according to Moran's I statistic. For each of these genes, differential

531   expression between tissue conditions was assessed using the fit_models and coefficient_table

functions, using a regression test with an adjusted P value less than 0.05, minimum fold-change

of 1.5, and with the number of counts, sequencing batch, brain region and mitochondrial gene

534   percentages as covariates.

Inference of regulatory links

We used a regression approach based on random forests to find open chromatin regions

associated with gene regulation. The goal was to predict the expression levels of the target gene

540   based on the accessibility of ATAC peaks (i.e. cis-regulatory elements) around the gene

promoter. Considering that a target gene g has n chromatin peaks, the linear regression was

defined as:

$$x_{gi} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_j a_{ji} + \epsilon_i$$

546   where x_{gi} is the expression of g in cell i, a_{ji} is the accessibility of a given peak j in cell i, w_j is

the weight and ϵ_i is the noise term. For the regression, we tested all peaks located in a 500kb

window around the gene's transcriptional start site (TSS), to include both proximal and distal

549   regulatory elements. The optimal weights, which were associated with the importance of the

cis-regulatory regions as predictors of gene expression, were determined using random forests.

Specifically, the regression was implemented using the GENIE3 R package[32], setting the

552   number of trees to 200, and peaks with weights in the top 5% (95% percentile) for each gene

were selected. We used the Encode annotation[57] downloaded from https:

//screen.encodeproject.org to identify open chromatin regions with potential enhancer activity.

555   Encode enhancers are classified based on their relative location to the TSS as proximal

enhancer-like sequences (pELS) if located within 200bp < TSS ≤ 2kb, or distal enhancer-like

sequence (dELS) when located more than 2kb from a TSS. We used both pELS and dELS

558   datasets for annotation.

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Author contributions

I.C.G. and D.F.T.V. designed the study. L.A.M. and M.L. performed single-cell assays. I.C.G.

576 and D.F.T.V. performed data analyses. P. A., J.C.G., C.L.Y., E.G., H.T., M.K.M.A., J.C.G, F.C.,

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I.C.G. and D.F.T.V. wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final version

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Competing interests

582 The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure 1. Overview of the multimodal single-cell sequencing in FCD type II.

(A) Schematic of FCD samples and study design. Cortical tissues from lesions and adjacent non-lesion areas in individuals with FCD IIa and IIb were profiled by multiome single-cell ATAC and RNA sequencing. Created with Biorender.com.

(B) Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) visualization of joint modalities (ATAC + RNA) after sample integration. Nuclei are colored by sequencing batch.

(C) UMAP joint visualization of nuclei colored by broad cell type annotation.

(D) UMAP joint visualization colored using a high-resolution annotation with classification of neuronal subtypes.

(E) UMAP plots depicting nuclei by tissue condition.

(F) Dot plot showing gene expression of known marker genes for major cortical cell types. Dot size corresponds to the fraction of cells expressing the marker, and color corresponds to the expression levels.

(G) Coverage plots of marker genes depicting chromatin accessibility across cell types. The normalized ATAC signal is depicted in a region of +/- 1kb around gene coordinates.

(H) Box plots showing cell type proportion by tissue condition. In box plots, the median is indicated by the center line; box limits represent upper and lower quartiles; and whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range. Overlay dots represent cell type proportions in individual samples. Significant changes in cell types were detected using Speckle. ˙$P < 0.1$, *$P < 0.5$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

Figure 2. Characterization of a disease-specific cluster containing dysmorphic neurons.

747 **(A)** UMAP highlighting the disease-specific (DS) cluster. The pie chart indicates the percentage of nuclei from FCD IIa, IIb, and controls within the cluster.

750 **(B)** KEGG pathways enrichment of DS cluster markers. The bars represent the significance score of pathway enrichment, and the color indicates the number of genes in each pathway.

753 **(C)** Dot plot denoting expression of marker genes associated with neurons in the DS cluster. Neuronal genes are grouped by biological function. Dot size and color correspond to expression frequency and level in the cluster, respectively.

(D) Violin plots denoting gene expression of *NEFM* and *NEFL* neurofilaments in the various cell types.

(E) Coverage plots of neuronal genes expressed in the DS cluster. The normalized ATAC signal is depicted in a region of +/- 1kb around gene coordinates.

(F) UMAP showing the module score of a dysmorphic neuron (DN) signature obtained from Baldassari et al.

768 **(G)** UMAP RNA plots showing the DS cluster population in FCD IIa and IIb lesions, histologically normal tissue from FCD individuals (internal controls), and normal cortex (autopsy controls). The leftmost UMAP depicts the cell types in the integrated dataset, which was created by integrating data from this study with Siletti et al.

Figure 3 – Microglia pathological cell states and activation in FCD type IIb.

(A) UMAP visualization of microglia and lymphoid subclusters sequenced in FCD lesions.

(B) Feature plots depicting expression of key genes distinguishing microglia subsets *CD83+* (*CD83, CCL2, CCL3*) and *CD74+* (*CD74, HLA-DRA, HLA-DPA1*).

(C) Dot plot denoting the expression of key marker genes in microglia and lymphoid subclusters.

(D) Box plots denoting subcluster frequency by tissue condition. Significant changes were detected using Speckle. Box plots and significance legends are defined in Fig. 1H.

(E) Volcano plot depicting differentially expressed genes in FCD IIb microglia. The *x*-axis is the fold-change (log2) expression in FCD IIb *vs* controls, and the *y*-axis depicts the significance

789 of the change (-log10 of the adjusted P-value). The color indicates the gene status.

(F) Dot plots showing top enriched GO terms in up- and down-regulated genes from (E). Dot

792 size and color correspond to the number of genes associated with the GO term and enrichment P-value, respectively.

795 **(G)** Top active motifs in FCD IIb microglia open chromatin regions, as measured by chromVAR.

798 **(H)** Feature plots depicting IRF8 and STAT1/STAT2 motif activity in the microglia from FCD IIb and controls.

Figure 4. Impaired Astrocyte Differentiation in FCD.

(A) UMAP visualization of astrocytes according to pseudotime trajectory estimated by Monocle3.

(B) Feature plots depicting gene expression of immature astrocyte markers *CD44*, *TNC*, *VCAN*, and *GFAP* (top), and differentiated astrocyte markers *SLC1A2*, *SLC1A3*, and *GPC5* (bottom).

(C) UMA visualization and density plot quantification of tissue condition along the trajectory.

(D) Feature plots depicting expression of balloon cells and reactive astrocytes gene signatures. Bar graphs (at the bottom) are quantifying active cells for these signatures along the pseudotime
816   trajectory, and cells are colored by tissue condition.

(E) Expression levels of genes associated with balloon cells and reactive astrocytes *CHI3L1*,
819   *HSPB1*, *SERPINA3*, *GFAP*, and *VIM* in the trajectory and by tissue condition.

Figure 5. Open chromatin changes in FCD and *FKBP5* regulation in astrocytes.

(A) Barplots depicting differentially accessible chromatin regions (DACRs) between FCD tissues and controls. The number of chromatin regions with opening or closing status (gain or loss of chromatin accessibility, respectively) is indicated for each cell type.

(B) Enhancer types overlapping DACRs. The number of opening and closing peaks associated with distal or proximal enhancers from Encode are indicated.

(C) Regulatory links predicted for *FKBP5* in astrocytes. ATAC coverage tracks and corresponding expression levels in controls, FCD IIb, and IIa tissues are depicted at the top. Regions highlighted in gray indicate opening peaks in lesions and red asterisks indicate Encode-annotated enhancers. The gene track shows the location of the *FKBP5* locus in chromosome 6, and the bottom track shows all peaks contained in the chromosomal region.

Supplementary Figure 1. Clustering and annotation.

(A) UMAP visualization of nuclei clusters in the multimodal FCD dataset. Clustering was performed in the joint graph (ATAC + RNA) obtained by Weighted Nearest Neighbor (WNN) analysis.

(B) Heatmap of cluster annotation performed by Azimuth based on the Allen atlas of the human cortex. The color indicates the proportion of Azimuth subtypes identified in each cluster.

(C) Bar graphs denoting the distribution of samples in each cluster.

(C) Bar graphs showing the distribution of final consensus cell types across nuclei clusters.

Supplementary Figure 2. Expression of mTORC1 signaling across cell types in FCD lesions.

(A) Violin plots of the mTORC1 signaling enrichment score by cell type and tissue condition. The enrichment score was calculated using the AddModuleScore function from Seurat, using the mTORC1 signature from MSigDB (https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb). In box plots, the median is indicated by the center line; box limits represent upper and lower quartiles; and whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range. Significant changes in cell types were detected using a Wilcox ran-sum test. *$P < 0.5$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

(B) Feature plots showing cells identified as active for the mTORC1 signature by the AUCell method. Cells with scores higher and lower than the AUCell threshold are shown in red and gray, respectively.

Supplementary Figure 3. Excitatory and inhibitory neuron subtypes affected in FCD.

876 **(A)** Box plots showing excitatory neurons (EN) subtype frequency in FCD and controls. In box plots, the median is indicated by the center line; box limits represent upper and lower quartiles; and whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range. Overlay dots represent proportions in 879 individual samples. Significant changes were detected using Speckle. ˙P < 0.1, *P < 0.5, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

882 **(B)** Bar graphs depicting the number of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in EN subtypes. DEGs between FCD and controls were computed using MAST with adj. P < 0.05. Only the five subtypes with the most transcriptional changes are shown.

(C) Box plots showing inhibitory neurons (IN) subtype frequency in FCD and controls. Box plots legends and significance levels are defined as in (A).

(D) Bar graphs depicting DEGs in IN subtypes. DEGs between FCD and controls were computed using MAST with adj. P < 0.05. Only the five subtypes with the most transcriptional 891 changes are shown.

Supplementary Figure 4. Heatmap depicting expression of top 10 markers in microglia subclusters. Markers were computed using the function FindMarkers from Seurat using the

897 Wilcox test, with a min.pct of 0.1, adjusted P < 0.05, and log2 fold-change > 1.5.

Supplementary Figure 5. Open chromatin regions linked to *C1QA* and *C1QB* regulation FCD IIb microglia.

(A) Regulatory links predicted for *C1QA* in microglia. ATAC coverage tracks and corresponding expression levels in controls and FCD IIb tissues are depicted at the top. Regions highlighted in gray indicate opening peaks in FCD and red asterisks indicate Encode-annotated enhancers. The gene track shows the location of the *C1QA* locus in chromosome 1, and the bottom track shows all peaks contained in the chromosomal region.

(B) Regulatory links predicted for *C1QB* in microglia. Legends are defined as in (A) above.